

AN EXAMINATION OF NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION
IN THE BUSINESS COMMUNITY

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TABLE OF CONTENTS



| | |
|---|----|
| CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION..... | 1 |
| CHAPTER TWO: EXAMINATION OF TEXTS..... | 19 |
| CHAPTER THREE: LIMITATIONS, GENERALIZATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS..... | 37 |
| NOTES..... | 54 |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY..... | 55 |
| APPENDIX..... | A1 |

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"What you are speaks so loudly I cannot hear what you say."

Ralph Waldo Emerson

The majority of the nonverbal skills that people possess were acquired from "on the job training;" that is, most people learn nonverbal skills from situations they experience in daily life. Mark Knapp believes that "we learn (not always consciously) nonverbal skills by imitating and modeling ourselves after others and by adapting our responses to the coaching, feedback and advice of others" (413). Knapp further suggests that the ability to develop nonverbal skills depends on four factors: an individual's motivation, attitude, knowledge, and experiences. This is a report about a type of communication, nonverbal communication, and how this form of communication affects our business relationships.

Ray Birdwhistle, a noted authority on nonverbal communication, estimates that "in a normal two person conversation, the verbal components carry less than 35 percent of the social meaning of the situation; more than 65 percent of the social meaning is carried on the nonverbal band" (Quoted in Knapp 15). Another nonverbal scholar, Albert Mehrabian, suggests that "as much as 93% of the emotional meaning is transmitted nonverbally" (Quoted in

Hickson and Stacks 4). Other researchers' estimates have varied slightly, but it is clearly documented that a significant percentage of our social and emotional communication is transmitted nonverbally. Mark Knapp summarizes the importance of nonverbal communication by saying that "nonverbal communication is important because of the role it plays in the total communication system, the tremendous quantity of informational cues it gives in any particular situation, and because of its use in fundamental areas of our daily life" (21).

Because nonverbal communication is so prevalent in our daily lives, it is important to discuss in this introductory chapter, the variety of ways nonverbal communication has been conceptualized and defined. I will also discuss why nonverbal communication is important in general, and specifically examine its importance in business relationships. Once I have established these points, I intend to discuss the justification for this study and finally, I will discuss the method selected for this study.

PERSPECTIVES ON NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION:

Nonverbal communication has been examined in a variety of ways. Researchers have analyzed nonverbal communication in terms of specific codes, functions, and processes. For example, researchers have examined nonverbal codes as sets of "signals that [are] transmitted via one particular medium or channel" (Knapp 20). Codes may also be defined according

to the carrier of the signal, such as artifacts, kinesics, and proxemics. Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall believe that the structure of nonverbal communication is formed from a combination of the various codes such as haptics, chronemics, and the environment.

There have been a variety of methods used to classify nonverbal codes and channels. In 1956, Ruesch and Kees approached the problem by grouping nonverbal cues into three categories: sign language, action language, and object language. Sign language consisted of gestures that replace specific words, punctuation marks, or numbers. An example of sign language would be holding up three fingers to say "three." Action language consisted of any other body movements which were not used as signs. An example of action language would be sitting or standing. Object language included any "intentional or unintentional display of objects that could act as statements about their user" (Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall 21). Personal appearance would be an example of this.

A second method of classifying nonverbal codes and channels was developed by Randall Harrison in 1974. He groups nonverbal communication into four categories: performance codes, spatiotemporal codes, artifactual codes, and mediatory codes. Performance codes consist of all nonverbal behaviors that are performed by the human body, for example, eye gaze, touch, and facial expressions.

Spatiotemporal codes include a combination of "messages based on manipulation of space, distance, and time" (Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall 21). Artifactual codes focus on the use of materials and objects to communicate. Examples of this would include clothing and architecture. Finally, mediatory codes include any special effects used by the media. An example of this would be the camera angle from which a producer decides to film a scene in a movie.

A third method of classifying nonverbal codes and channels has been examined by several researchers. This method "further differentiates them [the codes] according to the transmission medium and channel used" (Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall 21). For example, touch is treated as the distinct nonverbal code of haptics; body movement, gaze, and facial activity are incorporated in the code of kinesics; vocal activity makes up the code of paralanguage; the use of space falls into the code of proxemics; the use of time makes up the code chronemics; and physical appearance as well as artifacts have their own codes. At the most basic level, scholars have identified that researchers often define nonverbal codes in terms of which human sense is stimulated by the gesture, for example, the visual sense. Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall caution: "Although it is necessary temporarily to decompose nonverbal communication into its component structural features, ultimately we must look at the interrelationships among codes if any

understanding of nonverbal communication is to be achieved" (22). One way of understanding the interrelationships among the nonverbal codes is to study the way the codes work together in order to achieve a specific communication function.

"Functions are the purposes, motives or outcomes of communication" (Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall 22). Two early researchers, Paul Ekman and Wallace Friesen suggested that there were five primary functions of nonverbal communication: redundancy, substitution, complementation, emphasis, and contradiction. Clearly, except for the function of substitution, their interest was located in discerning how nonverbal communication functions or interacts with verbal communication. However, many nonverbal scholars write of the functions nonverbal communication performs independent of verbal communication.

Nonverbal researchers have identified the ability to communicate emotions as a significant function of nonverbal communication. "We rely heavily on nonverbal cues to express our feelings and emotional states," Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall argue (22). A second important function of nonverbal communication is the process of formulating and managing impressions, especially first impressions. Nonverbal communication can also function to achieve speaker credibility. Speakers accomplish this through identification of such characteristics as gender, race,

culture, and personality. Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall suggest that by "projecting their personal identity and in conforming to the norms of their ethnic group, sex, and race, people frequently reveal much about themselves" (22). An individual's stereotypic identity can create expectations which directly influence the way people communicate with one another.

Other functions of communication pertain to the interaction process itself. Nonverbal behaviors play an important role in the structuring of the interaction. For instance, nonverbal behaviors determine what role people are playing, what topics will be discussed, and how formal the interaction will be. Furthermore, nonverbal behaviors help "coordinate the ongoing interaction by regulating turn taking and establishing rhythms" (Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall 23).

Finally, nonverbal communication can affect the outcome of communication, that is, it contributes or detracts from persuasion and behavioral change. At the most basic level, nonverbal behaviors "significantly affect information processing and comprehension," that is, "the absence of nonverbal cues or the use of inappropriate ones can seriously impair learning and understanding" (Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall 23).

Although some researchers have studied nonverbal communication in terms of its functions, most often

nonverbal communication has been studied in terms of a particular code. For example, kinesics, commonly referred to as "body language" or "body motion," includes gestures, posture, facial expressions, eye behavior, and movements of the hands, head, feet, and legs. Kinesics examines "the impact of gestures on human communication" (Hickson and Stacks 144). "Gestures can be defined as any bodily movement, including gross corporeal motions and more subtle facial expressions" (Hickson and Stacks 144). Finally, Richmond, McCroskey, and Payne claim that "through our bodily motions, we can communicate our emotions, reinforce and accent the language, and even contradict what we have said" (47).

Often times nonverbal communication has been thought of as "body language." The person most closely associated with this is Ray Birdwhistle. Birdwhistle viewed kinesics from a structural perspective. He believed that behaviors are socially learned and that there is an underlying structure to behaviors; a sort of rule system. Birdwhistle believed that "behaviors can be broken into parts like sentences or words, and they can be categorized" (Richmond, McCroskey, and Payne 47). He also suggests that "without the participants being necessarily aware of it, human beings are constantly engaged in adjustments to the presence and activities of other human beings" (Birdwhistle 61).

Other people think of our personal space zones when they think of nonverbal communication; this relates to the way E. T. Hall examines proxemics. Hall analyzes proxemics, which he defines in his book The Hidden Dimension, as "the interrelated observation and theories of man's use of space as a specialized elaboration of culture" (1). Mark Knapp suggests that "our use of space (our own and others') can dramatically affect our ability to achieve certain desired communication goals - whether they involve romance, diplomacy, or aggression" (75).

The two basic dimensions of the use of space are territoriality and personal space. Any time we interact with another individual, we must determine our territory. Hall defines territoriality as the concept where "an animal lays claim to an area and defends it against members of its own species" (7). Personal space refers to the distance between two individuals during a communication interaction. If the topic of conversation is impersonal, the distance between the two individuals is greater, but as the topic becomes more intimate, the distance between the two individuals decreases.

G. L. Trager examines nonverbal communication from a paralanguage perspective, which is concerned with not only the content of what is said, but also, the manner in which it is conveyed. Hickson and Stacks define paralanguage as "the study of the voice and its impact on communication"

(149). There are three components to paralanguage: verbal, which refers to the use of words; oral, which refers to the spoken word; and vocal, which refers to the way we say the words.

Trager identified four components of paralanguage. Voice qualities, which include such characteristics as pitch range, articulation, rhythm, and tempo; vocal characteristics, which include such things as yawning, laughing, moaning, and sighing; vocal qualifiers, which consist of such things as intensity, pitch height, and extent to which the individual either drawls or clips his words; and vocal segregates, which include pauses and fillers. Paralanguage serves many functions, but two of the most important are to confirm or disconfirm the stereotypes we have of people based on their voices, and to regulate and interact in conversations.

Not surprisingly, there exist as many definitions as perspectives of nonverbal communication. Richmond, McCroskey, and Payne talk about the way nonverbal communication stimulates meaning. In their book, Nonverbal Behavior in Interpersonal Relations, they define nonverbal communication as "the process of one person stimulating meaning in the mind of another person (or persons) by means of nonverbal messages" (1). Devito and Hecht discuss nonverbal communication in terms of messages other than words. In their book, The Nonverbal Communication Reader,

they define nonverbal communication as "all the messages other than words that people exchange" (4). Hickson and Stacks discuss nonverbal communication in terms of intentional versus unintentional behavior used to express experiences, feelings, and attitudes. In their book, Nonverbal Communication: Studies and Applications, they define nonverbal communication as "a process whereby people, through the intentional or unintentional manipulation of normative actions and expectations (other than words themselves) express experiences, feelings, and attitudes in order to relate to and control themselves, others, and their environments" (11).

Despite the variety of these perspectives and definitions of nonverbal communication, Albert Mehrabian offers a heuristic to transcend these differences. Mehrabian broadly conceives of nonverbal communication as the subject matter which "deals primarily with the transmission of information about feelings and like-dislike attitudes" (3). He specifically defines nonverbal communication as "an area of study that clarifies the relationship among implicit behaviors and their emotional and attitudinal referents" (12). Mehrabian believes that it is possible to describe all nonverbal communication "in terms of the three independent dimensions of pleasure-displeasure, arousal-nonarousal, and dominance-submissiveness, and furthermore, these three dimensions are

both necessary and sufficient for the description of any emotional state" (5). Mehrabian further suggests, "it is possible to relate a composite measure of attitudes, likes-dislikes, and preferences to these basic dimensions of emotion" (5). Attitudes and preferences focus on the degree of liking or disliking we feel for a person, object, or event. "Positive attitude and preference mean liking; negative attitude and lack of preference mean dislike" (Mehrabian 11). These three dimensions are the common factors in our experiences; they refer to our basic feelings.

Mehrabian suggests that every communicative act consists of a group of symbols and the referents for these symbols. "Coding rules are used to infer referents from symbols (decoding) and to convey referents through the use of symbols (encoding)" (Mehrabian 4). In nonverbal communication, our implicit behaviors serve as the symbols of communication, while the referents are our emotional states and attitudes, likes-dislikes, or preferences. For example, previous studies on coding rules have shown that speech errors occur more frequently when people are anxious or when they are uncomfortable because they are lying (Harper, Wiens, and Matarazzo). Other studies have shown that people tend to stand closer to people they like as opposed to those they dislike (Mehrabian; Sundstrom and Altman).

I chose to use Mehrabian's three dimensional schema because it provides an effective and tested mechanism in which to conceptualize and examine nonverbal communication. It is all encompassing in the sense that any nonverbal behavior can be understood by casting it into Mehrabian's three dimensional schema. Each dimension is associated with certain activities which lead us to draw certain conclusions about individual behavior.

The "three dimensions of emotional reaction are simply the emotional response correlates of the three semantic differential dimensions" (Mehrabian 9). "Pleasure-displeasure is the emotional counterpart of positive versus negative evaluation; an object that is evaluated positively gives us pleasure, and one that is evaluated negatively gives us displeasure" (Mehrabian 9). The pleasure-displeasure dimension is concerned with immediacy. It can be described in terms of adjective pairs such as happy-unhappy, contented-melancholic, and hopeful-despairing. Examples of some of the nonverbal indicators for this dimension would include leaning forward, eye contact, touching, distancing oneself close to or away from the other individual, observation, and orientation. According to Mehrabian's research, these immediacy cues may be characteristics of deceitful and truthful communication.

"Arousal-nonarousal is the emotional counterpart of judging something as active versus passive; an object that

is active makes us feel aroused, but one that is passive makes us feel less aroused" (Mehrabian 9). "Arousal is the basic act of emotional reaction to one's environment and can be either positive or negative in quality" (Mehrabian 14). Descriptions of the arousal-nonarousal dimension deal with alertness and activity. Examples of adjective pairs might include excited-calm, wide awake-sleepy, and frenzied-sluggish. Examples of nonverbal indicators for this dimension might include changes in facial and vocal expressions, speech volume, and speech rate. Mehrabian's research shows that these activity cues are related to "intended and perceived persuasiveness" (30).

The dominance-submissiveness dimension is concerned with relaxation and can be described by adjective pairs such as controlling-controlled, important-awed, and autonomous-guided. Mehrabian suggests that "power coexists with larger size (for example, strutting versus shuffling, expansive versus small and controlled postures and movements), height (for example, standing upright versus bowing)" (15). Fear is also part of this metaphor. A fearless person is more likely to turn his back on someone than a fearful person. "Dominance-submissiveness is the emotional counterpart of judging something as potent versus impotent; an object that is potent makes us feel submissive; one that is impotent makes us feel dominant" (Mehrabian 9). Examples of nonverbal indicators for this dimension include leaning

sideways, relaxing the hands, relaxing the neck, reclining, and relaxed positions of the arms and legs. Mehrabian suggests that these relaxational cues "occur primarily in hierarchical situations where relative status is a salient categorization of the social environment" (30).

The principle idea behind all of this is that it is possible to determine a person's relational status with people and things simply by knowing their emotional reactions to those people and things. It is also possible to determine the person's emotional reactions to different people and objects simply by observing the degree of liking they exhibit.

The Importance of Nonverbal Communication in the
Business Organization:

Now that I have explained why nonverbal communication is important in general, it is necessary to understand why nonverbal communication is important in the business community. Previous research has shown that there is a definite correlation between effective communication and "high overall organizational performance" (Goldhaber 5). Information is essential to effective communication and communication is crucial to any organization. Anytime communication is misunderstood or misinterpreted, it can be costly, but especially in a business organization. Billions of dollars may be lost due to miscommunication. Nonverbal messages are fundamental factors in setting the stage for

relationships. They can function to lower an individual's self concept, determine which interactant is perceived as having higher status, and determine the degree of like-dislike among interactants.

According to Malandro, Barker, and Barker, "the ability to identify specific nonverbal behaviors that communicate effectively (or even miscommunicate) can assist you in improving your communication skills" (3). In a business organization, there is a definite need for a manager to learn to communicate with his employees in order to have an effective working relationship. One important aspect of improving one's communication skills is learning to be more aware of nonverbal communication. Managers need to learn to "be more sensitive and responsive to nonverbal cues of their employees" (Lewis 228). In order to do this, they must first become aware of their own nonverbal signals and learn to control them. As Lewis points out: "nonverbal communication not only colors our personal and business relationships, it significantly affects our sending and receiving of messages" (228).

If nonverbal communication constitutes anywhere from sixty to ninety percent of communication as the experts suggest, and if managers need to become more sensitive and responsive to their employees' nonverbal cues, it would seem that people in business ought to study nonverbal communication. Unfortunately, nonverbal communication is

rarely, if ever part of the academic curriculum in business. If individuals in the business world learn about nonverbal communication, the major resources available to them are most likely popularized business texts sold at the local bookstore. According to Dr. James George, PhD. in Business Administration, "people out there in the real world don't go to the Union to buy books on nonverbal communication, they go to Waldenbooks" (Private interview). Since millions of these books are sold every year, it seems logical that managers are looking to these texts for direction. Embedded within these texts is information about nonverbal communication. These business book authors express attitudes, articulate definitions, and suggest practice about nonverbal communication.

Consequently, a scholarly study which examines these texts is justified. I propose to review popularized business texts and examine their discussions of nonverbal communication. Specifically, I shall examine these books looking for their perspectives, attitudes, and specific advice about nonverbal communication. Finally, I intend to relate these nonverbal references to Mehrabian's three dimensional schema.

Method

The data for this study were popularized business texts. The data sample was generated by recording and cross-correlating a list of all business texts reviewed in

Money, Fortune, Harvard Business Review, and listed in the nonfiction section of The New York Times bestseller list from April 1987 through April 1989. Unstructured interviews were also conducted with three professors in the business management field in which they were asked to provide a list of the popularized business texts that they would suggest for a person in management.¹

After compiling and cross-referencing each list, the ten most commonly occurring popularized business texts were selected for analysis. The books selected include: Stephanie Winston's The Organized Executive, Walter Kiechel's Office Hours, Peter F. Drucker's The Effective Executive, Thomas J. Peters' Thriving on Chaos. Robert H. Waterman's The Renewal Factor, Robert R. Blake, Jane Srygley Mouton, and Robert Allen's Spectacular Teamwork, Thomas J. Peters and Robert H. Waterman's In Search of Excellence, Kenneth Blanchard and Spencer Johnson's The One Minute Manager, and A. L. William's All You Can Do Is All You Can Do, But All You Can Do is Enough. See appendix A for a summary of each book.

Once the book list was established, each book was read and discussions of nonverbal communication were noted. To better conceptualize the relational aspects of their nonverbal discussions, each nonverbal reference was categorized in terms of Mehrabian's three dimensional schema: pleasure-displeasure, arousal-nonarousal, and

dominance-submissiveness. Specific references were transcended in order to take generalizations about each book as a whole. Finally an attempt was made to discern an overall statement about the perspective these texts take of nonverbal communication. Again, I chose to use Mehrabian's three dimensional schema because it offered an all encompassing way in which to examine nonverbal communication.

CHAPTER 2
EXAMINATION OF TEXTS

"The body says what words cannot."

Martha Graham, The New York Times, March 31, 1985.

Although communication scholars have defined nonverbal communication in a variety of ways, the authors of these ten popularized business texts offer only very generic descriptions of nonverbal communication, for example, A. L. Williams claims that "Life isn't a sprint; it's a marathon" (61). He likens verbal communication to a sprint and nonverbal communication to a marathon because an individual's nonverbal cues are always present, but his verbal communication is not lasting. Other general principles offered by these business text authors include Robert Waterman's suggestion that "the most effective symbols are symbolic and functional" (288). Finally, Tom Peters advises, "a manager's 'symbols of support' must be consistent with his verbal communication" (308). These definitions only provide abstract generalizations, but it is possible to become more concrete in our study of nonverbal communication by examining these books as they relate to Mehrabian's three dimensional schema.

DOMINANCE-SUBMISSIVENESS

Recall from chapter one that the dominance-submissiveness dimension is concerned with relaxation and can be described by adjective pairs such as controlling-controlled, important-awed, and autonomous-guided. This dimension "is the emotional counterpart of judging something as potent versus impotent" (Mehrabian 9). Mehrabian's description of this dimension manifests itself in the business community in concerns about whether or not managers should try to break down the status barrier between themselves and their employees, and also whether or not employees should be autonomous or guided.

Many of the popularized business texts have the goal of reducing the status barrier between managers and subordinates. "The barrier between superiors and subordinates serves no useful purpose, but in fact, damages the self concepts of those who do not share the privileges" (Peters and Austin 355). Within these popularized books, the authors discuss several nonverbal codes as a means of accomplishing this goal. For example, artifacts which are "the physical objects and environmental attributes that communicate directly, define the communication context, or guide social behavior in some way" are discussed by several books as a means of reducing the status barrier (Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall 123).

In All You Can Do Is All You Can Do, But All You Can Do Is Enough, A. L. Williams refers to the use of artifacts in his chapter entitled "Keep it Simple and Use the Human Touch" (150). He stresses the need for new employees in his term life insurance company to create certain impressions in order to be invited into a potential customer's home. The impression created is fundamental to each salesperson's job since those first few minutes after the potential customer answers the door have the potential to make or break the sale. Williams uses his own story, laced with nonverbal examples to illustrate his point:

When I first began calling on customers, I brought along only a calculator, pen, and legal pad. I believed it was important to dress informally---I wore my coaching shorts. I didn't have any fancy brochures or leather briefcase. My idea was that by presenting an informal appearance and presentation, the people would realize that I wasn't out to make a fortune off of them and that I didn't have alot of overhead expenses to pay. This made them feel like I was offering them life insurance at the lowest possible rate (150).

A briefcase, coat, and tie intimidate people. Right off the bat, they know you want to sell them something and begin thinking of ways to turn you down. A casually dressed person seems more like them and has more of a chance of getting past the front door (150).

Furthermore, most insurance companies have rate books over an inch thick. Our company only sells one product, term life insurance, so our rate book is only one page thick. This appears easy, simple, and straight-forward to the

customers. Too many different options intimidate the customers (151).

Williams makes it easy to see how the artifacts help establish and interpret the situation.

Another clear example of a company that used nonverbal communication to reduce the employer-employee status barrier is revealed by Robert Waterman in The Renewal Factor. It is company policy for the president and chairman of Steelcase Office Furniture to maintain publicly listed home telephone numbers. They encourage employees to call them at home any time or to drop by their offices unannounced. Unlisted telephone numbers discourage contact, communication, and accessibility because they are status gaining artifacts. Since these senior executives maintain publicly listed telephone numbers, the employees perceive them as accessible and interested in what they have to say, thereby reducing the existing status differences.

A final example of ways of reducing the status barrier through the use of artifacts is given by Tom Peters in his book, Thriving on Chaos. Peters suggests that all executive secretaries be dispensed with, and instead, three or four executives should share one secretary. Following this line of thinking, Peters suggests that managers should dispense with the secretary's office as well as the door to their own offices. However, if it is not possible for the manager to remove the office door, it should consistently be left open. Furthermore, the manager's office should be no bigger or

better furnished than anyone else's. Finally, Peters suggests that managers should answer their own telephones.

A second nonverbal code discussed regarding reduction of the status barrier is physical appearance, defined as "body shape, body image, and physical attractiveness, clothing, cosmetics, hair, and accessories" (Hickson and Stacks 89). In their book, A Passion for Excellence, Tom Peters and Nancy Austin advocate a management style which they refer to as "Management by Wandering Around" (455). The implication of this management style is that by being seen, a manager is conveying the impression of caring about employees and being interested in their accomplishments, suggestions, and opinions. Peters and Austin caution the manager about the type of clothing worn when walking around the plant. They suggest that the manager should "wear whatever is comfortable, but try not to stick out like a sore thumb" (455). To emphasize their point, they give an example of a manager wandering around an automobile factory wearing a suit and tie. This would seem out of place since the employees will probably be wearing grease stained coveralls. However, Peters and Austin say there is an exception to this rule: "If you always wear a suit, you will make people anxious if you show up casually dressed--- they will wonder what you are up to" (455). Other than this exception, the authors conclude by saying that the employees can identify more closely with you if you are similar to

them, and one way to accomplish this is through similar dress.

Mark Knapp claims that there are eight various functions of clothing, including: "decoration, protection (both physical and psychological), sexual attraction, self-assertion, self-denial, concealment, group identification, and display of status or role" (178). Peters and Austin's advice seems most focused on Knapp's ideas of group identification and display of status or role since the managers are trying to appear similar to their employees. By dressing similar to the employees, the manager appears more like them and less like their boss, thereby reducing the employer-employee status barrier.

The final nonverbal code which speaks to the collapse of status differences is environment, defined as the "physical objects and environmental attributes" (Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall 123). Robert Waterman, author of The Renewal Factor, reveals how Harry Quadracci, founder of the printing company, Quad/Graphics, structured his business environment in such a way that it reduced the employer-employee status barrier. Quadracci designed his office so that the executive washroom was situated directly next to the company waiting room/reception area. This forced executives, he argues, to visit with customers, servicemen, and workers as they proceeded to the washroom. Quadracci's purpose behind this was to force the executives who run the

company to climb down from their ivory towers at least for a few moments now and then and deal with the little people. His goal was to keep the executives anchored to reality.

While many books focused on status collapse or reduction, some of these business book authors discussed methods of increasing the employer-employee status barrier. Peter Drucker, author of The Effective Executive, argues that "executives have good human relations because they focus on contribution in their own work, as a result, their relationships are productive. Warm feelings and pleasant words are meaningless, are indeed a false front for wretched attitudes, if there is no achievement in what is, after all, a work-focused and task focused relationship. On the other hand, an occasional rough word will not disturb a relationship that produces results and accomplishments for all concerned" (64). Several nonverbal codes are used to accomplish the goal of increasing the employer-employee status barrier. For example, the environment is used again. In her book, The Organized Executive, Stephanie Winston suggests that executives with their own secretaries are perceived as having more status than those who share a secretary. Winston advises, "if you have your own secretary, position her desk directly in front of your office so that she intercepts all visitors" (142). She claims that this practice serves as a barrier and causes the visitor to wonder if he might be wasting your time or if you

may be too busy for him. A second piece of advice Winston offers is "always keep your door closed" (142). She reasons that this gives the impression that you are working on a crucial project, even if you aren't. Finally, Winston suggests that if you do not have an office, position your desk so that you "don't catch the eye of passerbys" (142). She argues that this discourages communication, which allows you more time to get your work completed.

A second example of how the environment can be used to increase the employer-employee status barrier is provided by Walter Kiechel in his book, Office Hours. Kiechel specifically discusses the importance that seating arrangements play in the environment. L. T. Howells and S. W. Becker performed a study focusing on the relationship between seating arrangements and the emergence of leaders. They found that the flow of communication is determined by spatial position, which in turn, is a contributing factor to leadership emergence. Consistent with this nonverbal research and research that argues, "the end positions seem to carry with them a status or dominance factor," the business book authors advise managers to sit in a power position (Knapp 87). For example, Kiechel discusses seating arrangements at meetings, advising newcomers or visitors to "get there early and wait for people to begin filing in before you enter the room. Also, ask before taking a particular seat. Most importantly, never sit at the head of

the table; this chair is usually reserved for the leader" (21).

A final nonverbal code which is examined in terms of increasing the employer-employee status barrier is chronemics. Chronemics is commonly referred to as the study of time; this code is "the study of how we perceive, structure, react to, and interpret messages of time" (Richmond, McCroskey, and Payne 173). E. T. Hall, who has done extensive research on chronemics, effectively summarizes the importance of the functions of time in his book, The Silent Message, by simply saying: "Time talks. It speaks more plainly than words" (180). Indeed, some authors take this suggestion to heart, passing it on to those in the business world. In his book, The Effective Executive, Peter Drucker refers to the importance of time in business organizations, focusing on ways of avoiding unwanted visitors so the executive is able to accomplish more important things. He gives suggestions as to how to achieve this, for example, closing the outer door to your office, hanging "Do Not Disturb" signs on your doorknob, taping notes on the closed door, requesting that visitors come back later, and requesting your secretary to hold all calls and visitors. Hall claims that one of the functions of time is to communicate status. "Higher status persons are granted more time deviancies" (Richmond, McCroskey, and Payne 183). In this instance, by manipulating things in the

environment, the manager is using time to communicate; the manager controls the way that time is spent. For example, the manager determines how he wants to spend his time, also how the employees spend their time, or rather, how they do not spend it (by bothering the manager), and the manager controls how the secretary spends time (by informing visitors that the manager is not to be disturbed).

AROUSAL-NONAROUSAL

The second dimension of Mehrabian's three dimensional schema is the arousal-nonarousal dimension. Recall from chapter one that "arousal is the basic act of emotional reaction to one's environment and can be either positive or negative in quality" (Mehrabian 9). Descriptions of the arousal-nonarousal dimension deal with alertness and activity. Examples of adjective pairs which describe this dimension include excited-calm, wide awake-sleepy, and frenzied-calm. Mehrabian's arousal-nonarousal dimension manifests itself in the business community in terms of providing a stimulating environment for the purpose of maintaining the employees' motivation. The business book authors examine several nonverbal codes as a means of achieving this goal. For example, one nonverbal code they discuss is the environment. In Spectacular Teamwork, Blake, Mouton, and Allen specifically say that teamwork requires an atmosphere "that welcomes input or challenges those who have none" (128). They argue that this type of "neutral

environment," will stimulate the group members to contribute their ideas (130).

A second nonverbal code which is discussed in terms of maintaining a stimulating exciting environment is the code of proxemics or the study of space. Proxemics, according to Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall refers to the "perception, use, and structuring of space as communication" (74). However, Richmond, McCroskey, and Payne suggest that personal space refers to "an invisible portable bubble that surrounds us and which expands or contracts depending upon the personalities, situations, and types of relationships" (118). In their book, In Search of Excellence, Tom Peters and Robert Waterman claim that "if people are more than ten meters apart, the probability of communication at least once a week is only eight to nine percent" (220). But, they claim that by narrowing the distance to five meters, the probability of communication increases to twenty-five percent. Therefore, they suggest that managers discover ways of bringing people closer together physically. One suggestion they offer is to use "long rectangular lunch tables instead of round four person tables" in the lunch room (220). They argue that this will force the employees to meet and talk with other employees rather than sitting with the same group of three every day. This practice would help provide a dynamic atmosphere which would serve as a

motivating force for the employees since close proximity stimulates communication.

PLEASURE-DISPLEASURE

The final dimension of Mehrabian's three dimensional schema is that of pleasure-displeasure. In chapter one, we learned that this dimension is concerned with immediacy and "is the emotional counterpart of positive versus negative evaluation" (Mehrabian 9). This dimension can be described in terms of adjective pairs such as happy-unhappy, contented-melancholic, and hopeful-despairing. Mehrabian's pleasure-displeasure dimension manifests itself in these business texts in terms of providing a pleasurable work atmosphere. Some of the authors specifically encourage managers to raise their employees' self concepts, for example, in his book, All You Can Do Is All You Can Do, But All You Can Do Is Enough, A. L. Williams advises managers to "manage people, not businesses; build up your employees' self concept, morale, and attitude, and they will also believe in themselves, then the business improvement will follow" (150). Blanchard and Johnson, authors of The One Minute Manager, claim that the key to getting more work done is to help people feel good about themselves. One way this can be accomplished is through the use of nonverbal communication.

Nonverbal communication has several significant functions, but one of the most important functions, in any

type of relationship, is the influence it has on an individual's self concept. The authors of these popularized business texts discuss several nonverbal codes in terms of raising an employee's self concept. One example of this is when they discuss the nonverbal code of haptics or touch and how it can function to "give encouragement, express tenderness, and show emotional support" (Knapp 147). A. L. Williams, author of All You Can Do Is All You Can Do, But All You Can Do is Enough, advises managers to "use the human touch" (150). His suggestion for managers is: "Don't be afraid to build personal relationships" with your employees (197). He claims that this is important because "employees are the lifeblood of your company---their lives, careers, and happiness are directly related to your company" (197). Ways he suggests to go about building personal relationships with employees are to learn and use their first names, get to know their families, give them encouragement through pats on the back, arm, or shoulder, and finally, through hugs. "Don't be afraid to show emotion. Be human---laugh, cry, touch people, and hug them. I haven't met a single person yet who doesn't like being hugged" (Williams 199).

A second example of maintaining a stimulating motivational environment through touch is presented by Kenneth Blanchard and Spencer Johnson in The One Minute Manager. Knapp claims that "touch is a crucial aspect of most human relationships" (147). He reminds us that touch

functions to give encouragement, express tenderness, show emotional support, and many other things. In their book, The One Minute Manager, Blanchard and Johnson advise managers to make contact with employees when giving feedback on their performance by touching them. The purpose of this is to make the feedback more personal. Through the dialogue in their story, Blanchard and Johnson provide some guidelines for touching behavior. "Touch is a very powerful message. People have strong feelings about being touched, and that needs to be respected" (94). Another characteristic of touch is that it is very honest. "People know immediately when you touch them whether you care about them, or whether you are just trying to find a new way to manipulate them" (Blanchard and Johnson 95). Blanchard and Johnson offer managers a simple rule regarding touch: "When you touch, don't take" (95). They advise managers to touch their employees "only when you are giving them something--- reassurance, support, or encouragement" (95). However, Blanchard and Johnson warn managers not to touch their employees "if you or the other person has any doubts about it" (94). It is clear that touch is one of the nonverbal indicators of the pleasure dimension because it helps to create a comfortable work environment.

Kinesics is a second nonverbal code discussed by these authors, but they specifically focus on eye behavior. Hickson and Stacks define kinesics as "the study of human

body movements, including such phenomena as gestures, posture, facial expressions, eye behavior, and rate of walk" (119). This society associates different eye movements with certain expressions. For example, Mark Knapp claims that:

Downward glances are associated with modesty; wide eyes may be associated with frankness, wonder, naivete, or terror; raised upper eyelids along with contradiction of the orbicularis may mean displeasure; generally immobile facial muscles with a rather constant stare are frequently associated with coldness; and eyes rolled upward may be associated with fatigue or a suggestion that another's behavior is a bit weird (182).

Peters and Waterman, authors of In Search of Excellence, give an example of how one excellent company utilizes kinesics. McDonalds requires all of its "crew members" to make every possible effort to make the customer happy. Employees working the register are instructed to smile and make eye contact several times with every customer, regardless of whether or not the customer is in their line, has already been waited on, or is leaving. Ray Croc, founder of McDonalds, believes that the more pleasurable the experience is for the customer, the more satisfied the customer will be.

A final nonverbal code which is discussed in terms of creating a pleasant atmosphere is the environment. Tom Peters, author of Thriving on Chaos, gives the following examples of how the environment can influence our attitudes and behaviors. A good example of a company that realizes

the advantages of creating a comfortable atmosphere is Nordstrom, a men's clothing store. There is a grand piano and pianist in each branch store. Fresh cut flowers are placed in the spacious dressing rooms daily. There is no one at the entrance of the dressing room inquiring as to how many garments you have and checking to ensure that you return with the same number. Finally, there are no "thief-proof wires" on the coats to prevent the customer from trying them on (Peters 111). These implicit gestures all serve to create the impression that you are a valued and trusted customer and that your business is appreciated.

Another manager that strives to create a pleasant atmosphere in order to please customers is Ray Smith of the Louisville Redbirds. Smith "transformed minor-league baseball" by having spotless restrooms which are cleaned several times during each game; every seat in the stadium is steam cleaned and hand wiped before each game; freshly squeezed orange juice is available; the baseball players are available for pictures and autographs before and after each game; and children are encouraged to run out onto the ball field after each game. Smith claims that this type of family oriented environment draws a big crowd to the games even though the team's record isn't that good. The impression Smith is trying to create is that he cares about the fans. He wants them to have a good time and get their money's worth.

A final example of a manager who used nonverbal communication to create a pleasant atmosphere is Forester Adolph Hertrich, owner of Vanport, a lumber company located in Oregon. When Hertrich discovered that nearly ninety percent of his orders were being placed from Japan, he decided to research several Japanese lumber companies. He discovered that their idea of quality was quite different from his own. He believed the logs were of quality wood if they were strong. The Japanese look for aesthetic qualities as well, such as the color, shape, cut, size, and strength of the logs. Upon returning to the United States, Hertrich completely redesigned his lumber mill to meet the standards of the Japanese. He even went so far as to construct a traditional Japanese guest house, located on company grounds for Japanese businessmen to stay in during their stay in Oregon. The Japanese perceived these gestures as evidence that Hertrich was doing his best to accommodate their needs. To show their appreciation, several of the Japanese firms referred other clients to Hertrich and his business nearly doubled.

In conclusion, I would like to mention that several of these examples bear traces of more than one dimension and a few of them could have fallen under more than one nonverbal code; this is consistent with Mehrabian's research (19-20). Mehrabian claims that because the three dimensions of pleasure-displeasure, arousal-nonarousal, and dominance-

submissiveness are "the common factors in our experiences and refer to our basic feelings, the dimensions are both necessary and sufficient for the description of any emotional state" (5). Consequently, the reader should keep in mind that each nonverbal example could have been discussed in terms of each of the three dimensions. However, since I was breaking down each nonverbal reference discussed by the popular business book authors into its component parts, I categorized each nonverbal reference in terms of the nonverbal code and dimension which it most closely identified with.

CHAPTER 3

LIMITATIONS, GENERALIZATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

"You can persuade a man only insofar as you can talk his language by speech, gesture, tonality, order, image, idea, identifying your way with his."

Kenneth Burke

In this final chapter I intend to discuss the limitations, generalizations, and implications of nonverbal communication as it is presented to us by the popular authors. Furthermore, I will compare their findings, suggestions, and theories to those of the nonverbal communication scholars. Finally, I will conclude this report with some general suggestions for business managers regarding the use of nonverbal communication.

After examining the ten popularized business texts, I have reached the conclusion that the advice they offer managers in terms of nonverbal communication is limited at best. The advice is limited for several reasons, for instance, the authors fail to recognize the power of nonverbal communication, the research is all based on anecdotal evidence, and the material is laced with contradictions.

First, these popular authors fail to recognize the power of nonverbal communication. To begin with, the authors make very few references to nonverbal communication, which is surprising considering the length of some of these

books. For example, in The Effective Executive, Peter Drucker only makes one reference to nonverbal communication, Stephanie Winston only makes three references to nonverbal communication in The Organized Executive, and Walter Kiechel, author of Office Hours, only refers to nonverbal communication four times throughout the entire book. Considering the vast array of topics covered in these books and the fact that most of the authors promoted teamwork, open and informal communication, and group participation, which nonverbal communication seems to have an indirect effect on, it seems odd that the subject was not discussed in further detail. Furthermore, the majority of these popular books have similar goals: teach managers how to be as effective as possible in terms of organization, business strategies, and managing their human resources. It seems reasonable to assume that nonverbal communication could be used as a means of achieving these goals because as Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall argue, people use nonverbal strategies "to advance and reinforce their control" (425).

A second limitation is that the nonverbal advice provided by these popular authors is all based on anecdotal evidence. Judith Koivumaki criticizes popular authors in her article, "Body Language Taught Here," for assigning meaning to nonverbal gestures "without indicating on what authority" it is based (27). She believes there are several problems associated with the type of nonverbal research

currently being performed, but the most serious offense is that much of it is provided through anecdotal situations. Roderick Hart describes this as "anecdotal fixation," which he defines as "an over-extended concern for the details of time and place which surround the messages being inspected" (285). Koivumaki suggests that anecdotal research is appealing because "on the face of it, anyone who has eyes and ears (or a nose, or whatever) has the equipment to be an expert" (28). To emphasize her point, she provides us with the real life example of a public high school in New York City which offers a course every semester called "Body Language." If that weren't bad enough, the teacher uses Julius Fast's book, Body Language as the text.

Anecdotes describe rather than interpret situations. They don't provide any evidence, only brief scenarios which are characterized by quick fix solutions. Koivumaki describes anecdotal evidence as containing oversimplified findings, factually stated hypotheses and truisms, and "the reader is often in the dark as to whose research is being reported" (28). An example of an anecdote is provided by Walter Kiechel in his book Office Hours. He begins by describing a routine business meeting and concludes with: "You will always be able to tell who is feeling dominant from their body language. Heavy hitters tend to sit in a relaxed, even sprawling position" (21). Finally, "because the authors invoke the word 'science,' the reputation of

more scholarly research stands to suffer" (Koivumaki 28). The point is, that there is no one specific answer which solves this problem, however, that is the impression the reader gets from reading these popularized business texts. The problem with this is that a manager may recognize the need for some kind of change, so he goes to the local bookstore and buys one of these top ten books. After reading the book, he learns that there is a clear and easy solution to all of his problems. After implementing the necessary changes, according to which popularized business text he reads, the manager sees no improvement. Eventually, he will get frustrated, return to his old management style and forever more criticize nonverbal communication as soft sell garbage.

To summarize this point, anecdotal evidence is not really evidence at all. It is a brief scenario which usually has a happy ending; it reveals one particular situation which may or may not ever occur exactly under those conditions again, and provides an easy solution. Granted, there are no covering laws in nonverbal communication, but if we continue "to worship anecdotes, we will be driven further and further away from such general understanding" (Hart 286).

A final limitation of the nonverbal advice provided by the popular authors is that their material is laced with

inconsistencies. Not only do several of the ten popularized business texts frequently contradict each other, but the authors also frequently ignore evidence provided by documented nonverbal studies. A major inconsistency which was found through most of these books is that the authors place very little importance on nonverbal communication. They never referred to it as "nonverbal communication," but on the few occasions when they did discuss it, they referred to it as "body language" or "so-called nonverbal communication" (Kiechel 21). Although the authors do not define what they are referring to when they describe nonverbal communication, they imply it throughout their books. The majority of the anecdotal situations they provide are laced with implicit nonverbal communication. For example, Walter Kiechel describes a scenario where the main character makes an appointment with his boss with the intention of asking for a raise:

I take the elevator to that special floor, emerging to step into the deepest carpet in the world and an almost funereal quiet. Proceeding down the long cool corridor, I enter his secretary's office, itself large enough to amply house three or four of my co-workers. She appraises me with a glance, makes a brief but unhurried phone call, and announces that Mr. Big will see me now.

There, somewhere at the end of the room, he sits---lost for a moment in an aureole of light from the wall size windows, then descried behind a desk as big as a car. My God, he must be forty feet away. I approach gingerly, and am gestured to a visitor's seat all of

eight inches above the floor. He smiles. I imagine him saying: 'sit down Smedley---sit down, make yourself comfortable, and grovel a little' (291).

The purpose behind Kiechels' story is that everyone, not just this person, feels uncomfortable when asking for a raise, and it isn't easy to do; but if you believe that you have earned it, ask for the raise. He never mentions how the environment affects our attitudes or how our impressions of people may be influenced by the artifacts they surround themselves with, but he obviously must be aware of how these things can affect one's status, or he would not go to such great lengths to describe Mr. Big's plush office in this particular manner. The point I am making is that these authors ignore the importance of nonverbal communication, but yet their books are filled with examples of it, and this is a contradiction in and of itself.

A second type of inconsistency is that several of the authors make internal inconsistent statements in their material. For example, Blake, Mouton, and Allen, authors of Spectacular Teamwork, specifically say that teamwork requires an atmosphere "that welcomes input or challenges those who have none" (128). They refer to this type of environment as a "neutral environment" (130). This seems to be a contradiction of terms since the environment cannot be both neutral and challenging to those individuals who do not have any input. A neutral environment would stimulate

unrestrained communication, but the type of environment they are describing seems threatening.

Mark Knapp suggests that there are six different perceptions of our surroundings: perceptions of formality, warmth, privacy, familiarity, constraint, and distance. Each perception is characterized by a distinct type of communication. The perception of formality is characterized by communication that is "less relaxed and more superficial, hesitant, and stylized," which seems to be the type of communication occurring in the "neutral environment" which Blake, Mouton, and Allen describe (Knapp 54).

Another example of this same type of inconsistency is provided by Robert Waterman in The Renewal Factor. Waterman discusses how Harry Quadracci, founder of Quad/Graphics printing company structured his business environment in such a way that it reduced the employer-employee status barrier. Quadracci designed his office so that the executive washroom was situated directly next to the company waiting room/reception area. This forced the executives to stop and visit with anyone who might be waiting in the reception area. This example seems inconsistent with exactly what it intends to accomplish. Quadracci thought that this practice would reduce the status barrier, but just the fact that the company has an executive washroom greatly increases the status of the executives. Furthermore, the fact that the executive washroom is not available to the employees reduces

their status. A better example of this might have been if Quadracci had done away with the executive washroom altogether.

The final example of an inconsistent anecdote is also provided by Waterman. He tells the story of how Roger Schipke, at General Electric, found a way to improve communication between the senior executives and the managers, thereby reducing the status barrier. Schipke organized "The Breakfast Club," which consisted of the top sixty managers at General Electric, meeting for breakfast once a month. The purpose of this was to get the managers to communicate not only professionally, but also socially with the firm's top executives. This does not seem to reduce the status barrier at all, but rather increases it. This practice may have worked if all General Electric employees had been eligible to participate, but "The Breakfast Club" was open only to managers. This only serves to cause the employees to realize that this is yet another privilege that they are denied, thereby increasing the status barrier.

The third type of inconsistency provided by these popular authors concerns their suggestions for the use of nonverbal communication. Recall from chapter one that Mehrabian suggests "the bulk of the referents of implicit communication are emotions and attitudes, likes-dislikes, or preferences" (11). This simply means that nonverbal

communication is heavily used when communicating emotions. The popular authors encourage managers to use nonverbal communication as a means of communicating status, power, or dominance over their employees. With the exception of The One Minute Manager and All You Can Do Is All You Can Do, But All You Can Do Is Enough, these popular authors do not discuss the subject of emotions. If the bulk of nonverbal communication is used to express emotional feelings as Mehrabian suggests, then it seems logical that these authors should have at least discussed the relationship of an employee's attitudes and his emotional feelings toward his job, boss, and co-workers. Not only this, but the authors could have provided suggestions on ways to utilize nonverbal communication to influence an employee's emotional attitudes. The point here is not that these popular authors claim false ideas about nonverbal communication, but rather that they ignore the research performed as nonverbal scholars, therefore, they are discussing it in a different context from that of the nonverbal scholars. If the popular authors would combine scholarly evidence with their anecdotal findings, their cases would be stronger, more clear, and more valid. As it stands now, the popular authors seem to have become self-appointed experts on the subject of nonverbal communication.

A final type of inconsistency found in these popular business books is that several of the authors contradict

each other. For example, in Thriving on Chaos, Tom Peters suggests that productivity will be higher if managers strive to decrease the employer-employee status barrier. He suggests several methods for accomplishing this goal, for instance, dispensing with all executive secretaries. Instead of each executive having their own executive secretary, Peters suggests that three or four managers should share one secretary. Furthermore, Peters suggests that managers should dispense with the secretary's office as well as the door to their own offices. In cases where it is not possible to remove the office door, Peters advises managers to consistently leave the door open. Also, Peters believes that a manager's office should be no bigger or better furnished than anyone else's. Finally, he suggests that managers should answer their own telephones. These practices all serve to create the impression that the manager is available to the employees, thereby reducing the status barrier.

However, in The Organized Executive, Stephanie Winston suggests that productivity will increase if managers strive to increase or at least maintain the employer-employee status barrier. Winston suggests several methods of using nonverbal communication to increase the status barrier, for instance, she suggests that executives with their own secretaries are perceived as having more status than those who share a secretary. She advises managers, "if you have

your own secretary, position her desk directly in front of your office so that she intercepts all visitors" (142). She claims that this will serve as a barrier that will cause the visitor to wonder if they might be wasting your time or if you may be too busy for them. Secondly, Winston advises, "always keep your door closed" (142). She claims that this will create the impression that you are too busy to be disturbed, even if you are not doing anything. Finally, Winston suggests that if you don't have an office, position your desk so that you "don't catch the eye of passerbys" (142). She claims that this will discourage communication, which allows you more time to complete your work.

Winston and Peters appear to be directly contradicting each other. The suggestions Winston makes seem to be exactly opposite of those that Peters makes, which is not surprising since they are striving to achieve opposite goals. The point I am making is that the ten business books which I examined are the ten most popular business books being sold. If managers are looking to these sources for information on nonverbal communication, they are getting contradictory information. Furthermore, the information is not supported by any scholarly evidence; it is based on the popular author's own observations and theories.

Aside from the limitations of the nonverbal advice presented by the popular authors, they also make several generalizations about nonverbal communication. Their main

assumption is that the key components of nonverbal communication are power, status, dominance, and authority. These characteristics are all factors involved with nonverbal communication, but there are many more dimensions of nonverbal communication than this. A second assumption made by these popular authors is that most managers are concerned with increasing productivity. This seems like a logical assumption; consequently, it would also seem logical for managers to utilize nonverbal communication so as to increase productivity.

In terms of Mehrabian's three dimensional schema, these authors focus most clearly on the dominance-submissiveness dimension. Some of the popular authors focus on ways to obtain more status, power, dominance, and authority over the subordinates; others focus on ways of reducing the superior's status, power, dominance, and authority in order to increase the employee's self concept; still others analyze methods of appearing more powerful, even in cases where the individual is not powerful at all; but the bottom line is that these popularized business books focus on power. Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall define power as "a relationally determined potential to influence another person that rests on the relevancy of a communicator's resources and actions to the target" (427). Furthermore, the probability of influence increases as the relevance increases (Tedeschi & Bonoma, 1972). "The authority,

dominance, status, and expertise of a source are likely to determine whether the target will comply with nonverbal influence messages, and the management of these images depends on the careful, deliberate display of nonverbal cues" (Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall 427). The selection and consequences of the persuasive nonverbal strategy may also be influenced by the relationship between the target and the influencer.

Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall suggest that "a major function of communication is to project an image that is favorable" (429). Furthermore, they claim that nonverbal strategies which convey a "successful impression of power and credibility not only increase others' attraction, liking, and evaluation of us; they may also make others more receptive or susceptible to our influence" (429). There are several ways to convey impressions of power, authority, dominance, or status, but among the most common are through the use of "uniforms, personal artifacts, and environmental trappings" (Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall 429). The popular authors concentrate their efforts to increase or decrease the employer-employee status barrier mainly through the use of personal artifacts and environmental trappings.

The popular authors who focus on ways of obtaining more power in order to increase the employer-employee status barrier are in essence, advising managers that the most effective way of increasing productivity is by intimidating

the employees. These authors seem to believe that the employees need constant supervision or they will engage in behavior disruptive to the production of the organization, which is after all, their main priority.

Several of the popular authors advise managers of ways to utilize nonverbal communication as a means of reducing the employer-employee status barrier, thereby increasing productivity. These authors advise managers to strive for innovation, encourage growth of employees, provide immediate feedback on performance, and treat people as adults. In his article, "Leadership Impressions and Nonverbal Communication in a Superior-Subordinate Interaction," Martin Remland suggests that "behaviors that help get the job done (e.g. organizing work groups, maintaining standards of performance, meeting deadlines, etc.) and behaviors that show concern for subordinates as people (e.g. caring, supporting, respecting, friendliness, listening, etc.) tend to be associated with effective leadership in an organization (Stogdill, 1974)" (41). Research indicates that in organizations, superiors tend to be more relaxed (Mehrabian 1972), more invading (Henley 1977), more expansive (Mehrabian 1968), less attentive (Mehrabian 1968), less vulnerable to spatial invasion (Henley 1977), and more in control of floor apportionment (Eakins and Eakins 1976). In summary, as indicated by research, "attributions of status power are often based on nonverbal cues. Thus, in

superior-subordinate interactions, perceived status differences are likely to be affected by the nonverbal communication patterns which are present" (Remland 43).

Several of the popular authors discuss nonverbal strategies directed toward decreasing these status differences. One idea they discuss is the idea of raising the employee's self concept in order to positively effect productivity. Other authors discuss the significance of managers dispensing with "environmental trappings" or status gaining artifacts (Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall 429). Still others discuss the significant need for informal communication between employers and employees. These are all good ideas and the authors provide helpful examples of ways to accomplish these things, but as I mentioned earlier, independently, these are quick fix solutions to a problem that has been around since the beginning of time, and there is no one easy solution.

Aside from the limitations and generalizations of nonverbal communication provided by these popular authors, there are also some implications which need to be discussed. First, as stated earlier, there is very little actual discussion of nonverbal communication, but it is implied throughout these books. The implication of this is that either these popular authors don't take the subject of nonverbal communication seriously or that they don't realize the power of nonverbal communication; I believe the latter

is the case. Second, as also stated before, the majority of the focus of the popular authors is on power. The implication of this is that they recognize the usefulness of nonverbal communication only as a base manipulator which functions as an agency to greater power. Finally, the popular authors need to develop a greater sensitivity to nonverbal communication. This could be accomplished through education, consulting, and research. The implication of this is that these popular authors are not teaching us anything about nonverbal communication, they are merely relating interesting stories and providing their own conclusions. Research of this kind is causing the field of nonverbal communication to suffer. These popularized texts are written more toward a profit motive than toward theory building.

Finally, I believe that managers need to be aware of and utilize nonverbal communication in terms of all three of Mehrabian's dimensions to enhance the American work environment. The answer lies in a combination of the three dimensions, not just the dominance-submissiveness dimension. Granted, the most pressing issue may be the employer-employee status barrier in many organizations, but correcting that factor alone will not achieve long lasting effects. At a time when American business competitiveness is waning, nonverbal communication theory should be viewed as a fundamental component in creating the foundation of a

positive organizational environment rather than used as a manipulator to achieve short term profits. Managers who concentrate their focus on power gaining strategies may find that this is indeed the fastest way to increase productivity, but as A. L. Williams of All You Can Do Is All You Can Do, But All You Can Do Is Enough points out, "Life isn't a sprint, it's a marathon" (61).

NOTES

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APPENDIX

In Search of Excellence, by Tom Peters and Robert Waterman

In this book, Peters and Waterman generate eight basic principles necessary for managing an excellent company. The authors explain and give detailed examples of each principle. Peters and Waterman travelled all across the United States and rated various companies on their excellence scale. They provide detailed accounts of how some of the excellent companies handled certain situations. They sum up the philosophy of an excellent company with these four suggestions: "respect the individual, make people winners, let them stand out, and treat people as adults" (227).

The authors prescribe the management style of "management by wandering around." They advocate the manager making himself seen and wandering around the company talking, listening, and getting to know the employees. Overall, this book focuses on a type of management that provides a "fun and exciting environment which helps keep the people motivated" (291).

Spectacular Teamwork, by Robert R. Blake, Jane Srygley Mouton, and Robert L. Allen

This book focuses on the importance of teamwork which the authors define as "working together in the interest of achieving a common goal" (3). The authors argue that effective teamwork is crucial to organizations because "the employees are the most strategic resource" available to them (3). Blake, Mouton, and Allen believe that managers are beginning to realize the need to mobilize human resources. The results of this mobilization are "productivity, quality, creativity, and innovation" (2). Furthermore, they claim that the goals of mobilization are "better profit, sustained growth, and effective competition" (2). Consequently, this book focuses on ways to achieve these goals through teamwork.

All You Can Do Is All You Can Do, But All You Can Do Is
Enough, by A. L. Williams

This book is the story of one man's success. A. L. Williams describes his own "rags to riches" story and provides advice on how any manager can build a championship business by believing in his own unlimited potential, beginning by changing his management techniques. Williams advocates using the "human touch;" a two step process of getting to know and care about your employees, and building their self concepts up in order to make them feel good about themselves (150). Then, he argues, "the business improvement will follow" (150).

A Passion for Excellence, by Tom Peters and Nancy Austin

This book begins by focusing on the fact that the American business industry is undergoing a revolution. Managers are beginning to realize that their previous techniques are no longer working and are being forced to apply new techniques. Peters and Austin offer innovative ideas for people oriented managers. They provide various detailed descriptions on how certain innovative companies handle specific situations and explain the theory behind their actions. The purpose of this book is to "zero in on the key areas of competence that add up to excellence."

The Renewal Factor, by Robert H. Waterman

This book focuses on ways of breathing new life into a company. Waterman defines renewal as: "the essence of living; an essential for excellence; the way the best get and keep the competitive edge." He discusses different methods used by different managers to salvage what was left of their organization. Mostly, the book focuses on ways of building better customer relations. Waterman suggests that "today's leaders must re-create themselves and their ways of doing business in order to stay on top, or to stay competitive."

Waterman scratches the surface of the importance of nonverbal communication in business, but he is usually focusing on the customers rather than the employees. He discusses and gives several examples of ways to break down the superior-subordinate barrier by using nonverbal communication. In general, this book is primarily concerned with increasing productivity in order to remain a competitive player in the business industry.

The overall goal of this book is to teach managers how to "breathe new life into their corporation to ensure its survival and growth," but specifically, Waterman hopes to accomplish several things. First, he hopes to teach managers "how to set directions, not strategy." Second, he hopes to teach managers "how to meet crisis points by anticipating opportunities with 'what-if' scenarios."

Third, he wants to teach managers how to "identify the really important issues and make sure they are at the surface." Fourth, he hopes to teach managers to "increase capability by building skills to sustain competitive advantage." Finally, he wants to teach managers how to "recognize and use 'friendly facts' and 'congenial controls'."

The Effective Executive, by Peter Drucker

This book focuses almost entirely on the subject of managing oneself. Drucker claims that there isn't sufficient evidence supporting the idea that one individual can manage other individuals, however, he does believe that it is always possible for one to manage oneself. Drucker claims that effectiveness must be learned. It can only be accomplished through experience and practice.

Drucker claims that the measure of an executive is "the ability to get the right things done." The major objective of this book is to teach executives how to become more effective. Specifically, Drucker focuses on the following five steps which must first be achieved before an executive can truly be called "effective:" management of time, deciding what to contribute to the particular organization, knowing how and where to mobilize strength for achieving the best result, setting up the right priorities, and combining the above four steps with effective decision making.

Office Hours, by Walter Kiechel

This book provides instructions for a manger to follow in just about any conceivable managerial situation. Kiechel provides a list of situations that could possibly occur in a business organization and then provides anecdotal remedies for the manager to undertake. Kiechel covers everything from asking for a raise to business gift giving etiquette. Finally, the goal of this book is to teach managers how to "work with people in organizations to get the most from subordinates, superiors, and themselves."

The Organized Executive, by Stephanie Winston

This book focuses on teaching a manager how to become organized. Winston discusses the organization of time, paper, and people in order to be as effective as possible. Winston begins each chapter by describing a common problem with most executives, for example, how to deal with "drop in visitors." She then provides a short self examination which serves the purpose of showing the individual just how ineffectively they have been handling the problem in the past. Finally, she provides anecdotal solutions to the problems.

The One Minute Manager, by Kenneth Blanchard and Spencer Johnson

This book reads like a short story, but recognizes some very practical management techniques. These techniques are not only applicable for managers in business organizations, but for dealing with children and every day situations as well.

Blanchard and Johnson specifically focus on three points: one minute goal settings, one minute praisings, and one minute reprimands. The authors provide the reader with examples of each principle by describing a short, but detailed story of how one man learned to be a one minute manager.

Thriving on Chaos, by Tom Peters

This book is written similarly to a management text. Peters addresses every conceivable problem an organization might face and then lists the steps to be taken to correct the problem. Peters describes every situation from corporate mergers to measuring customer satisfaction.

Peters believes that the business industry is about to undergo a necessary revolution. He describes how a once predictable, stable environment is being replaced by a necessary flexibility. The major goal of this book is to teach managers how to accept uncertainty or chaos and learn to thrive on it rather than fight to regain their stable environment.

AN EXAMINATION OF NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION
IN THE BUSINESS COMMUNITY

by

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AN ABSTRACT OF A REPORT

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requirements for the degree

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This report focuses on the way popularized business books discuss nonverbal communication, specifically examining their perspectives, attitudes, and advice regarding nonverbal communication. After compiling a list of the top ten popularized business books and reading each book, all references to nonverbal communication were noted. These references were then categorized by nonverbal code and organized and examined in terms of Albert Mehrabian's three dimensional schema: dominance-submissiveness, arousal-nonarousal, and pleasure-displeasure. Finally, limitations, generalizations, and implications of the way these popular authors discuss nonverbal communication are explored.